

A Climatological Analysis of the Köppen Dfa/Dfb Boundary in Eastern North America, 1901-1990¹

MARTIN MITCHELL AND JEFF KIENHOLZ, Department of Geography, Mankato State University, Mankato, MN 56001-8400

ABSTRACT. In 1952, Jack Villmow proposed a new and more northerly border for the Dfa/Dfb climate boundary in eastern North America. This paper follows from Villmow's work with an improved data set over a longer period and considers the issue of anthropogenically induced global warming as a possible cause for explaining any change in the boundary.

Data were obtained from the Global Historical Climatology Network's *Long-Term Monthly Temperature, Precipitation, Sea Level Pressure, and Station Pressure Data*. Analysis included extracting the annual maximum mean monthly temperature values for 160 weather observing stations in the United States and Canada and mapping the 22° C isotherm (Dfa/Dfb boundary) for three 30-year sequential climatological periods beginning with 1901-1930. Although the Dfa/Dfb boundary did vary latitudinally in each 30-year period, no evidence of warming was found in the north central and northeastern US, or the southern peninsula of Ontario over the 90-year period, particularly in the most recent 30-year comparison (1961-1990).

OHIO J. SCI. 97 (3): 53-58, 1997

INTRODUCTION

This paper cartographically examines changes in the Köppen Dfa/Dfb boundary in eastern North America using three 30-year data sets that correspond to the climatological "normal" as defined by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO 1992). The study begins with 1901-1930 and ends with 1961-1990. During each period, the Dfa/Dfb boundary was mapped. Essentially, the boundary depicts the 30-year mean average location for the transition zone between these climate subtypes as determined by the 22° C isotherm for the warmest monthly mean. The initial hypothesis was that given the concern over long term anthropogenically induced global warming, the boundary should depict a northward advance in either the Midwest, the Northeast or throughout eastern North America.

Similar studies of eastern North America were done by Kendall (1935) and Villmow (1952). Kendall cartographically examined the annual locations of the Köppen A, B, C, and D climates from 1914 through 1931. Several years later, Villmow used data from 1920-1949 in two sets, comparing 1920-1934 and 1935-1949 to specifically analyze Dfa/Dfb boundary changes. Indeed, Villmow concluded that the 1935-1949 period was warmer than 1920-1934, and advocated revising then existing climate maps to depict the northward shift of the Dfa/Dfb boundary. By using a much longer data set and more sophisticated data analysis techniques, this study seeks to reevaluate Villmow's work and relate it to the possibility of global warming.

Although there is little debate that human activity has contributed to increased concentrations of the major greenhouse gases, especially carbon dioxide, there is a great deal of controversy concerning what effect this will have on earth's climate (Panel on Policy Implications 1992). This chasm came to the fore in 1988 when

climate modeler James Hansen (director of NASA's Institute of Space Studies) testified before Congress with a 99% confidence that anthropogenic greenhouse gases were causing global warming and contributing to a drought that was affecting corn and soybean production in the Midwest (Kerr 1989).

This was not the first time that anthropogenically induced warming was cited as a detrimental factor in US corn and soybean production. Earlier, Butzer (1980) predicted that by the middle of the 21st century, the corn belt region would shift northward into regions of poorer soils and drainage, thus significantly reducing crop acreage and average yields. In addition, dust bowl conditions would be common on the Great Plains and irrigation water in the American West would be reduced and unreliable (Butzer 1980). Similar findings were reported by Kaufman (1991) who stated that anthropogenic warming would induce changes in agricultural regions. Rosenzweig and Hillel (1993) and a US EPA study forecasted increased food prices and a significant drop in agricultural exports which would occur under the more extreme climate change scenarios (Smith and Tirpak 1989).

Skeptics of anthropogenic warming are concerned about the limits of the global circulation models (GCMs) and the lack of empirical findings. For example, early GCMs predicted three to five degrees Celsius warming by the year 2050, but as the models improved, the forecasted temperature rise dropped to a range of 1.5 to 2.5 degrees Celsius (Lindzen 1990, Michaels and Stooksbury 1992, Schneider 1993). Moreover, an empirical study of the climatic record of the 48 contiguous United States conducted by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) found "no statistically significant evidence of an overall increase in annual temperature or change in annual precipitation for the contiguous US 1895-1987," even though greenhouse gas additions have gone over half-way to a doubling of CO₂ concentration (Brooks 1989).

The NOAA study was national, but regional change is

¹Manuscript received 28 February 1997 and in revised form 24 April 1997 (#97-06).

most significant for agricultural production (Strommen 1992). For example, regional warming in one area can be masked by cooling in another (Diaz and Quayle 1980). Thus, returning to the initial hypothesis, if anthropogenically induced global warming has occurred, it should be reflected in Dfa/Dfb boundary shifts in all or parts of eastern North America, particularly during the latter period of 1961-1990. Indeed, the potential agricultural impacts as asserted above place particular importance on the corn belt of the Midwest.

The Köppen Climate Classification System

The Köppen system of climate classification is valid for this study because to a large extent it is based on thermal criteria such as annual and monthly means (Trewartha and Horn 1980). For example, the tropical A climates are based on monthly mean averages of at least 18° C, a temperature that corresponds roughly with the poleward limit of tropical vegetation. The subtropical C and middle latitude D climates are separated by the coldest monthly means of above or below -3° C, respectively. Moreover, since Köppen was a plant geographer, the individual subtypes within major categories are often characterized by the intensity of summer or the growing season. For example, a Dfa climate has at least one month above 22° C while a Dfb climate, though all monthly means are under 22° C, has at least four months above 10° C, with the latter criterion being a significant parameter in maintaining a forest. Only the B climates, which are based on water balance deficiencies, are not predicated on thermal parameters. However, even within this category, a thermal criterion (an annual mean of above or below 18° C) is used to distinguish tropical from midlatitude desert and steppe climates (Hidore and Oliver 1993).

As Oliver (1991, 1994) stated, because of its underlying logic and use of definitive rules, the Köppen method remains "the most widely used of the many climatic grouping systems available." As noted, Kendall (1935) used the Köppen system to depict the direction of inter-annual climatic change of climates east of the Rocky Mountains. Villmow's use of the Köppen classification in 1952 gave further justification for its use with a longer time period for regional comparisons. Indeed, Oliver (1994) recently used a 95-year data set to delineate variation between the Köppen Cfa and Dfa climates across Illinois and Indiana.

The Dfa/Dfb boundary is determined by exceeding or failing to meet the maximum mean monthly temperature of 22° C (71.6° F) during the peak of the growing season (Eichenlaub 1979). As noted above, the Dfa, or warm-summer subtype of the humid continental climate, is determined by a monthly mean above 22° C. Indeed, this climate type is often referred to as the "corn-belt climate" because a significant portion of the world's corn is grown within this climate (Trewartha 1954). In contrast, the cooler Dfb climate has been referred to as the "spring wheat climate" (Trewartha and Horn 1980). It is also noted for summertime resorts or simply a place to vacation and escape the heat. The upper Midwest, upper New England and upstate New York are examples.

Although precipitation occurs year-round in the Dfa

and Dfb climates, it is most prevalent in the summer months in the corn and soybean growing areas of the Midwest. It occurs from the advection of relatively unstable maritime tropical (mT) air reacting to an intensive sensible heat flux and frontal lifting. Corn and soybean growth is favored under these conditions because the peak growing season occurs during the rainy season, yet cloud cover is minimized because of the convective component of storm formation. The existing climate is again significant given concerns over the impact of projected global warming in the Midwest region by Butzer (1980).

Villmow's study used data from 101 weather observation stations in the United States and 20 in Canada for the two consecutive periods of 1920-1934 and 1935-1949. He determined the position of the Dfa/Dfb line for each year, and plotted a mean line indicating the average position of the boundary during each period. These mean boundaries were determined cartographically by averaging the latitudinal positions of each of the Dfa/Dfb lines at several meridians of longitude. For his final map, he averaged the position of each of his 15-year periods into a single new 30-year average boundary position and compared it to the currently used boundary as depicted with a dashed line in Figure 1 (Villmow 1952).

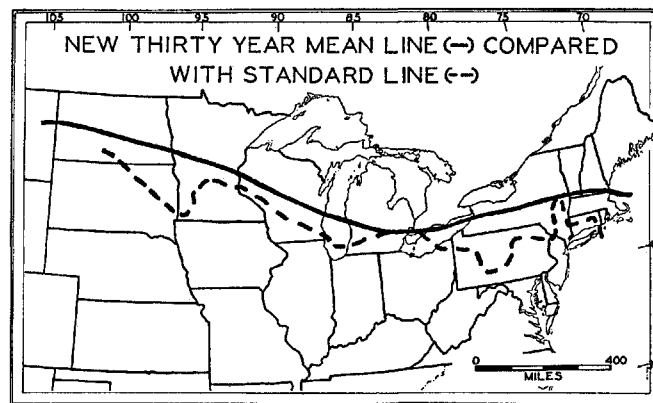


FIGURE 1. Villmow's 1952 placement of Köppen's Dfa/Dfb boundary.

Villmow found that the average position of the Dfa/Dfb boundary for the 30-year (1920-1949) period had indeed changed and in some cases was located as much as 200 miles farther north than the majority of climatic maps indicated. He therefore called for a new Dfa/Dfb boundary to be accepted for the Eastern United States (Fig. 1). A major criticism of Villmow's work centers on his extension of the Dfa/Dfb boundary into the middle latitude steppe (BSk) climate of the Dakotas. Consequently, this study extends no further west than Minnesota.

The 1901-1990 Data Set

For this study, station selection began by replicating as many of the 101 US and 20 Canadian stations used by Villmow (1952) as possible and then adding other stations to improve the spatial resolution. Ultimately, 159 stations were selected. This included slightly over

80 percent of Villmow's original US stations in the Midwest and Northeast. Villmow's stations from the Great Plains were eliminated because of location in the semi-arid BSk climate. To give better boundary conditions

for cartographic analysis, the data set was augmented by 43 extra stations from the Dfa/Dfb climates and another six stations chiefly from the adjacent Cfa climate of Missouri and Kentucky (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Eleven

TABLE 1

United States and Canadian weather observation stations.

CANADIAN STATIONS					
City	Prov.	City	Prov.	City	Prov.
1 Winnipeg	MNT	4 Windsor	ONT	7 North Bay	ONT
2 Peterborough	ONT	5 Toronto Intl.	ONT	8 Wawa	ONT
3 Welland	ONT	6 Ottawa/Intl.	ONT	9 Montreal	QBC
UNITED STATES STATIONS					
City	State	City	State	City	State
10 New Haven	CT	60 Marquette	MI	110 Cooperstown	NY
11 Groton	CT	61 Stambaugh 1S	MI	111 Gloversville	NY
12 Storrs	CT	62 Grand Meadow	MN	112 Indian Lake	NY
13 Des Moines	IA	63 Albert Lea	MN	113 Little Falls	NY
14 Dubuque	IA	64 Zumbrota	MN	114 Saratoga Springs	NY
15 Fayette	IA	65 Fairmont	MN	115 Syracuse	NY
16 Sioux City	IA	66 Milan	MN	116 Oswego	NY
17 Charles City	IA	67 Montevideo	MN	117 Addison	NY
18 Forest City	IA	68 Pipestone	MN	118 Hemlock	NY
19 New Hampton	IA	69 Alexandria	MN	119 Buffalo	NY
20 Algona	IA	70 Minneapolis	MN	120 Rochester	NY
21 Estherville	IA	71 St. Cloud	MN	121 Canton 4SE	NY
22 Fort Dodge	IA	72 Farmington	MN	122 Chazy	NY
23 Rockwell City	IA	73 Maple Plain	MN	123 Cincinnati	OH
24 Storm Lake	IA	74 Mora	MN	124 Columbus	OH
25 Rock Rapids	IA	75 New Ulm	MN	125 Sandusky	OH
26 Charleston	IL	76 Olivia	MN	126 Franklin	OH
27 Chicago (O'Hare)	IL	77 St. Peter	MN	127 Warren	OH
28 Peoria	IL	78 Duluth	MN	128 Toledo	OH
29 Evansville	IN	79 Sandy Lake Dam	MN	129 Harrisburg	PA
30 Anderson Sewage Plant	IN	80 Two Harbors	MN	130 Selinsgrove 2S	PA
31 Fort Wayne	IN	81 Virgina	MN	131 State College	PA
32 Lexington	KY	82 Ada	MN	132 Williamsport	PA
33 Louisville	KY	83 Detroit Lakes	MN	133 Towanda	PA
34 New Bedford	MA	84 Morris WC Exp Stn	MN	134 Reading	PA
35 Taunton	MA	85 Hallock	MN	135 Pittsburgh/Greater Pitts	PA
36 Boston	MA	86 Leech Lake Dam	MN	136 Wellsboro	PA
37 Blue Hill Observatory	MA	87 Park Rapids	MN	137 Erie WSO	PA
38 Bedford	MA	88 Pine River Dam	MN	138 Providence	RI
39 Framingham	MA	89 Pokegama Dam	MN	139 Block Island	RI
40 Portland	ME	90 Roseau 1E	MN	140 Washington DC	VA
41 Lewiston	ME	91 Winnibigoshish Dam	MN	141 Chelsea	VT
42 Orono	ME	92 St. Louis	MO	142 St. Johnsbury	VT
43 Gardiner	ME	93 Springfield	MO	143 Enosburg Falls	VT
44 Houlton	ME	94 Columbia	MO	144 Burlington	VT
45 Millinocket	ME	95 Kansas City	MO	145 Cornwall	VT
46 Detroit	MI	96 Hanover	NH	146 Racine	WI
47 Grand Rapids	MI	97 Concord	NH	147 Madison	WI
48 Kalamazoo State Hospital	MI	98 Atlantic City State Marina	NJ	148 Hancock Exp. Farm	WI
49 Grand Haven	MI	99 Boonton	NJ	149 Portage	WI
50 Big Rapids Waterworks	MI	100 Charlotteburg	NJ	150 LaCrosse	WI
51 Lansing	MI	101 New Brunswick	NJ	151 Green Bay	WI
52 Alma	MI	102 Belvidere	NJ	152 Antigo 1SSW	WI
53 Midland	MI	103 Mohonk Lake	NY	153 Fond Du Lac	WI
54 Owosso Wastewater Plant	MI	104 Port Jarvis	NY	154 Manitowoc	WI
55 Alpena	MI	105 Binghamton	NY	155 New London	WI
56 East Tawas	MI	106 Cortland	NY	156 Ashland Exp. Farm	WI
57 Sault Ste. Marie	MI	107 Ithaca (Cornell Univ.)	NY	157 Medford	WI
58 Cheboygan	MI	108 Oneonta State Univ.	NY	158 Minocqua Dam	WI
59 Ironwood	MI	109 Albany	NY	159 Spooner Exp. Farm	WI

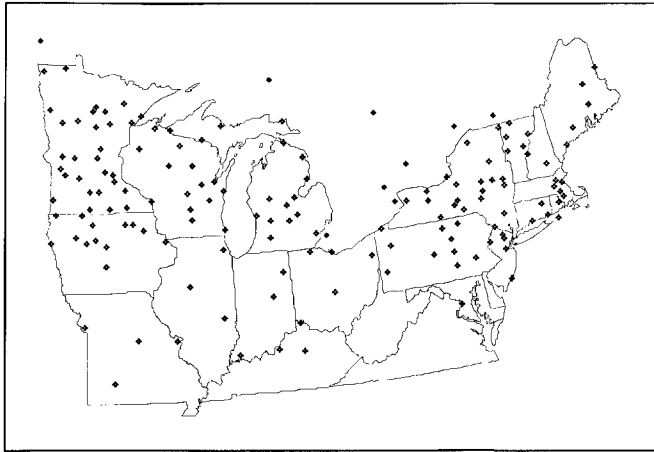


FIGURE 2. Spatial distribution of weather observation stations.

of Villmow's Canadian stations were dropped because of their extreme peripheral location relative to the Dfa/Dfb boundary.

Most of the data were obtained from the Global Historical Climatology Network's *Long-Term Monthly Temperature, Precipitation, Sea Level Pressure, and Station Pressure Data*. The Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN) project is operated as a joint venture by the Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC) and the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC). Their purpose was to compile an improved global data set of long-term monthly mean temperature, precipitation, sea level pressure and station pressure by consolidating the numerous pre-existing national, regional, and global-scale data sets into a single global climate database (Vose et. al. 1992). In doing this, the GHCN data were initially screened for extreme value, then plotted and visually inspected for gross data processing errors and discontinuities, thus making it one of the more reliable data sets available (Vose et. al. 1992).

Nonetheless, the station data selected did have some shortcomings. There was an inconsistency in numeric rounding of the temperature data which in most cases was archived to the nearest tenth of a degree Celsius. However, about 15 percent of the values were from stations that rounded to the nearest whole degree. This was further complicated with some stations having both rounding practices in their record. The GHCN database did not contain documentation on these variations in precision.

It was also possible that precision errors existed as a result of some data values being converted from English to Metric units. If a station's data were recorded in degrees Fahrenheit and rounded to the nearest whole degree, there will be a certain amount of error when it is converted to tenths of a degree Celsius. Again, the GHCN data base does not contain documentation on the details of data conversions.

Finally, there were some data that were inevitably missing, and some of the temperature data simply ended anywhere from 1987 to 1990. Thus, it was necessary to obtain data from two additional sources to complete the data set through 1990. Data for US stations were obtained

from the National Climatic Data Center's (NCDC) *Climatological Data* publication and data for Canadian stations were obtained from the World Meteorological Organization's (WMO) *Monthly Climatic Data for the World* (MCDW). Despite these efforts, 2.27% of the data remained missing.

The missing values were compiled in one of two methods. If three consecutive years or less were missing and there was a value preceding and immediately after the missing data, those two values (on either side of the missing ones) were averaged and replaced the missing values. The assumption was that the missing value would more closely reflect the years immediately adjacent. This method was in keeping with the principle of using short term means in near-term forecasting (Lamb and Changnon 1981) and was used on 50% of the missing data cases. If more than three consecutive years were missing or values did not exist on both sides of the missing values, the station's grand mean was used as the replacement figure.

The data for all stations were then divided into three 30-year periods (1901-1930, 1931-1960, and 1961-1990) and the mean position of the 22° C isotherm for the warmest month was mapped onto an Albers Equal Area base map because its standard parallels at 29.5°N and 45°N greatly reduced aerial distortion (Dent 1996). The stations which served as control points were placed computer-graphically onto the maps to within one hundredth of a degree of latitude and longitude by using Atlas Pro.

The placement of the 22° C isotherm was calculated by linear interpolation between the control points (weather stations) for each of the three periods by using the following equation

$$Pd = (\Delta T_t / \Delta T) * d$$

Where Pd is the proportional distance; ΔT_t is the difference in absolute value between one of the stations and 22° C; ΔT is the difference in absolute value between two stations bisected by the 22° C isotherm; and d is the distance between the two stations. This method was not only used when stations were nearly across from each other, but also in diagonal or triangular manner to enhance the locational precision of the 22° C isotherm.

This method assumed a uniform or linear gradient, which reinforced the need to augment Villmow's 121 station data set. In reality, such a gradient was not exactly the case, especially in the northeastern US where the Appalachian Mountains exist, but given the scale of this study and the low elevations of the Appalachians in the Dfa/Dfb boundary zone, this method appears reasonably precise. Moreover, since it was used throughout all the maps, any resulting error would likely occur randomly and on a small spatial scale (Hsu and Robinson 1970).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The 1901-1930 average position of the Dfa/Dfb boundary was the most southerly of the three time periods examined (Figs. 3 and 4). Idso (1988) suggests that this

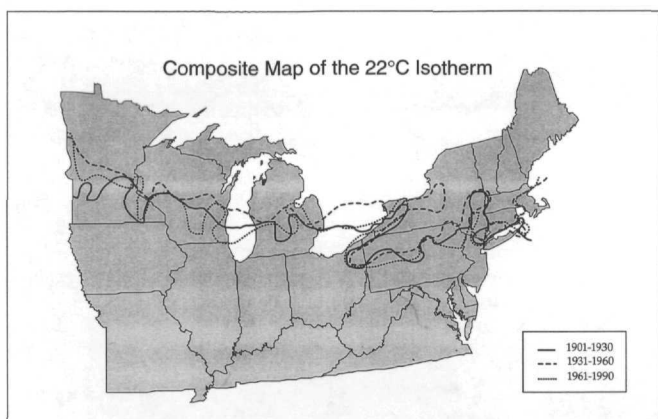


FIGURE 3. Composite of the 22° C isotherm 1901-1930, 1931-1960, and 1961-1990.

was most likely the result of its temporal proximity to the closing of the Little Ice Age (Idso 1988). The 1931-1960 average appears to be the most northerly (Figs. 3 and 5). This period encompassed the "Dust-Bowl" years which were known to be unusually warm and dry. Worster (1979) noted that all US States except for Vermont and Maine experienced drought periods between 1930 and 1936. There is also the suggestion that temperature lags associated with large scale industrialization, motorized transportation, and electrification of the US and Canada may have contributed to the pattern.

The average position for the 1961-1990 period fell approximately midway between the two other boundary positions (Figs. 3 and 6). This suggests that increasing summertime warming, as measured by the warmest monthly mean on a regional scale, was not occurring. If anything, it suggests that a slight cooling trend had occurred when compared to the previous "climatological normal" period.

This could be significant because a warming trend attributable to anthropogenic emissions of CO₂ should have been visible because of the substantial increase in total emissions and the lag (if any) from previous industrial development. Indeed, global warming skeptics

often state that most of the warming trend during the 100 years prior to 1990 had occurred by 1940, well before the contemporary rise in CO₂ emissions.

The general pattern or configuration for each the Dfa/Dfb boundaries remained largely the same, although latitudinal displacements of the entire line were evident. In some cases, shifts of the 22° C isotherm were more than 300 km, as in western Minnesota. However, this latter variation occurred along the western periphery of the Dfa/b climate where it merges into the drier and more continental BSk climate of the Great Plains.

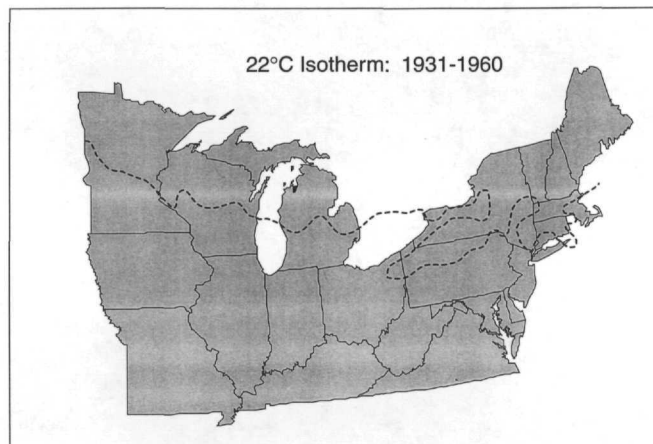


FIGURE 5. The 22° C isotherm 1931-1960.

In the eastern portion of the study area, a series of relatively sharp northward and southward extensions with a topographic explanation was consistently manifested. Southerly extensions into northern Pennsylvania and southern New England were the result of stations being at higher and cooler locations in the Appalachian Mountains, and a northward extension of the boundary in eastern New York State was most likely the result of stations being located within the Hudson River Valley. These stations are at lower and warmer locations. Finally, another northward extension along the coast of Massachusetts and Rhode Island was caused by the moderating effects of the Atlantic Ocean.

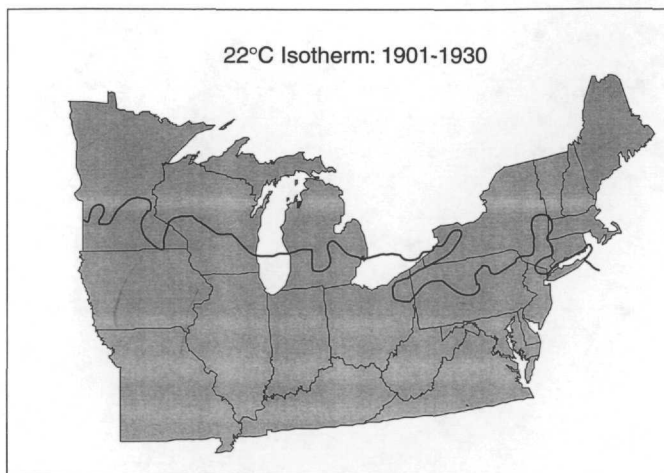


FIGURE 4. The 22° C isotherm 1901-1930.

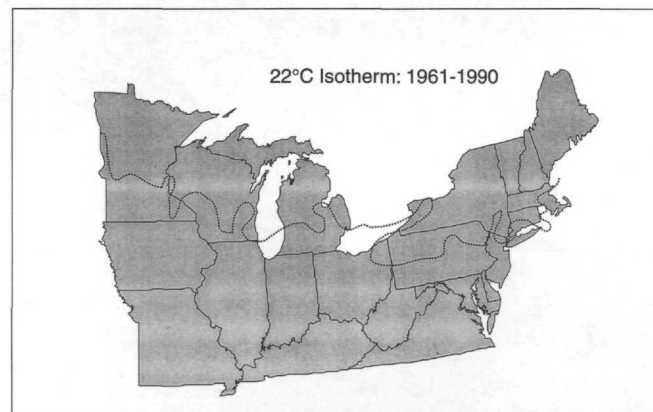


FIGURE 6. The 22° C isotherm 1961-1990.

CONCLUSIONS

This study concludes that (a) use of the Köppen method and its subtypes for tracking latitudinal shifts of the Dfa/Dfb boundary was appropriate given the thermal variables that underpin the method's classification system; and (b) Villmow's previous call for a more northerly border using 1935 to 1949 data occurred in the midst of the warmest 30-year period, 1931-1960. In contrast, the 1961-1990 Dfa/Dfb boundary was between the locations of the 1901-1930 and 1931-1960 borders. Thus far, a warmer summer in the Corn Belt and a consequent shift to the north, as was predicted by Butzer (1980), does not appear to be occurring. Indeed, a slight cooling trend in the summer was noted for 1961-1990.

LITERATURE CITED

- Brooks, W. 1989 The Global Warming Panic. *Forbes* 12: 96-102.
- Butzer, K. 1980 Adaptation to Global Environmental Change. *Professional Geographer* 32: 269-278.
- Dent, B. 1996 Cartography - Thematic Map Design. Wm. C. Brown Publishers, Dubuque, IA.
- Diaz, H. and Quayle, R. 1980 The Climate of the United States Since 1895: Spatial and Temporal Changes. *Monthly Weather Review*. 108: 249-266.
- Eichenlaub, V. 1979 Weather and Climate of the Great Lakes Region. University of Notre Dame Press, South Bend, IN.
- Hidore, J. J. and J. E. Oliver 1993 Climatology: An Atmospheric Science. Macmillan, New York.
- Hsu, M. and A. Robinson 1970 The Fidelity of Isopleth Maps. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.
- Idso, S. B. 1988 Greenhouse Warming and the Demise of the Little Ice Age: A Critical Question for Climatology. *Theoretical and Applied Climatology* 39: 54-56.
- Kaufman, D. 1991 The Greenhouse Effect: Available and Needed Laws and Treaties. *J. of Environmental Law and Policy* 9: 219-246.
- Kendall, H. M. 1935 Notes on Climatic Boundaries in the Eastern United States. *Geographical Review* 25: 117-124.
- Kerr, R. 1989 Hansen vs. the World on the Greenhouse Threat. *Science* 244: 1041-1043.
- Lamb, P. J. and S. A. Changnon 1981 On the Best Temperature and Precipitation Normals: The Illinois Situation. *J. of Applied Meteorology* 20: 1383-1390.
- Lindzen, R. S. 1990 Some Coolness Concerning Global Warming. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society* 71: 288-299.
- Michaels, P. J. and D. E. Stooksbury 1992 Global Warming: A Reduced Threat? *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society* 73: 1563-1577.
- Oliver, J. E. 1991 The History, Status, and Future of Climatic Classification. *Physical Geography* 12: 231-252.
- 1994 Assessing Climatic Variations with Climate Years. *Proceedings of Applied Geography Conference* 17: 42-49.
- Panel on Policy Implications of Greenhouse Warming 1992 Policy Implications of Greenhouse Warming. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- Rosenzweig, C. and D. Hillel 1993 Agriculture in a Greenhouse World. *National Geographic Research and Exploration* 9: 208-221.
- Schneider, S. 1993 Degrees of Certainty. *National Geographic Research and Exploration* 9: 173-190.
- Smith, J. and D. Tirpak 1989 Executive Summary. In *The Potential Effects of Global Climate Change on the United States EPA Draft Report to Congress*. Office of Policy, Planning and Evaluation, Washington, DC.
- Strommen, N. 1992 Climate and Crop Yield. *National Geographic Research and Exploration* 8: 10-21.
- Trewartha, G. T. 1954 *An Introduction to Climate*, 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- and L. Horn 1980 *An Introduction to Climate*, 5th ed. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Villmow, J. 1952 The Position of the Köppen Dfa/Dfb Boundary in Eastern United States. *Annals of the Assn. of American Geographers* 42: 94-97.
- Vose, R., R. Schmoyer, P. Steurer, T. Peterson, R. Heim, T. Karl, and J. Eischeid 1992 The Global Historical Climatology Network: Long-term Monthly Temperature, Precipitation, Sea Level Pressure, and Station Pressure Data. ORNL/CDIAC-53, NDP-041. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN.
- World Meteorological Organization 1992 International Meteorological Vocabulary, 2nd ed. WMO/OMM/BMO - No. 182, World Meteorological Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Worster, D. 1979 *Dust Bowl: The Southern Plains in the 1930's*. Oxford University Press, New York.